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ABSTRACT

A set of abstracts in the working stage is presented. A total of 46 is included. The basic focus of this collection is on ways to communicate as an alternative to destructive behavior. (CK)

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Communication and Conflict Resolution
(a working paper)

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This set of abstracts should be considered a first approximation to an area which we have called "Communication and Conflict Resolution". The work is still in progress so this paper is a picture of where we stand as of May 1969. We have included books and articles deemed "relevant" by those of us working on the project.

We don't have any clearly defined and intellectually defensible rule for judging whether an article is "in" or "out". Some general guidelines were:

1. The work had to do with communication approaches to the problem as opposed to game theoretic or other kinds of approaches.
2. The work was either pragmatic or had pragmatic implications. The group is interested in implementing solutions rather than writing articles about communication and conflict.
3. The work is "core" enough to the field that it can hardly be ignored by anyone in the field.

The last point needs explanation. The game theory approach to international conflict is an approach that can hardly be ignored. But game theoreticians might assume that "war is inevitable" and build a logical system based on this assumption. Those who advocate peace are challenging this assumption. In other words, both a game theorist and a "dove" (to use a commonly accepted label) might wish for peace but they begin with different assumptions about what is possible. The researcher in communication is not in a position to ignore game theory. We would suggest that via communication we might attempt to change the assumption of many that "war is inevitable". This is a tough communication problem because game theorists have more data to support their assumptions than idealists who assume that "war is not inevitable".

An article or book was included if it fit any one of the three rules. We have also eliminated many articles that were essentially the same as ones we have included. The obvious case being the countless articles done on research in any

given tradition such as research using Prisoner's Dilemma. These articles were deleted in order to keep this document within reasonable limits of size.

As one generally finds in most areas of inquiry, the experts differ on key issues. Some differences occur on issues such as:

1. What is conflict?
2. Is conflict good or bad?
3. Is aggression part of man or does he learn it?
4. What model of conflict helps us understand it best?

We make no attempt to answer the questions here. Lorenz suggests that conflict is part of man and will "out" in one form or another. Berkowitz and Montague disagree with this position. Coser suggests the benefits of conflict, and numerous writers note that conflict is inherent in change - hence the best we can do is manage conflict peacefully.

Leary makes a telling point when he defines violence as the key problem and he defines violence as "killing at a distance with machines". He and other theorists suggest that paths among parts of the brain may be established via drugs that would lead man to live in peace with his fellow man. Leary's point here is that bombs and guns and knives are the problem and not conflict per se. And he suggests that drugs may do what speeches can not do. But this is an interesting aside. Communication is the focus of these abstracts.

Communication may have some answers for conflict. For example, game theorists use a model called a zero-sum game. Chess is an example of such a game. If I win - you lose. Many conflicts can be analyzed in terms of a zero-sum game and treated in strategic terms. A communication scholar might suggest that many zero-sum games are only perceived as zero-sum games. Via communication he would work toward the parties involved to change their perception of the conflict which may help resolve the conflict. A trivial example is a quibble between man and wife about going or not going to the movie. If they go, the wife is happy; If they do

not go, the husband is happy. If they lock in to only these alternatives, they are in a perceived zero-sum game. If they metacommunicate (talk about it) they will see other alternatives and avoid aggravating either party.

Another area in which communication is important is management of change. A new invention is perceived as "good" by the factory management, but as "bad" by the union steward because of the loss of jobs. Communication can play an important role in the management of change by having each side explain his perception of change to the other and work toward a mutual solution.

So far we have suggested some of the kinds of things one might expect to read in the works we have selected. This introduction might well turn into a paper if we were to discuss all the issues salient to the study of communication and conflict resolution.

We ask that any readers of this paper help us by sending suggestions or comments to us about the abstracts. Send them to:

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Contents

Arnold, William R. "Criminality, Conflict and Adolescent Ambivalence"

Bass, Bernard M. "Biases In The Evaluation Of One's Own Group, Its Allies And Opponents"

Bennis, Benne, and Chin The Planning of Change

Bernard, Jessie "The Conceptualization of the Intergroup Relations with Special Reference to Conflict"

Bertrand, Alvin L. "The Stress-Strain Element of Social Systems: A Micro-Theory of Conflict and Change"

Blood, Robert O., Jr. "Resolving Family Conflicts"

Boulding, Kenneth E. Conflict and Defense

Boulding, Kenneth E. The Image, Knowledge in Life and Society

Carver, Thomas N. "The Basis of Social Conflict"

Clark, Kenneth "Problems of Social Power and Social Change: A Relevant Social Psychology"

Coser, Lewis The Functions of Social Conflict

Deutsch, M.A., and Krauss, Robert "The Effect of Threat Upon Interpersonal Bargaining"

Deutsch, Morton "Trust and Suspicion"

Dollard, J., Doob, L.W., Miller, N.E., Mowrer, N.E., and Sears, R.R. Frustration and Aggression

Dubin, Robert. "Industrial Conflict and Social Welfare"

Etzioni, Amitai "Toward a Theory of Guided Societal Change"

Fink, Clinton F. "Some Conceptual Difficulties in the Theory of Social Conflict"

Friedland, William H. "For a Socialogical Concept of Charisma"

Gans, Herbert J. "The Ghetto Rebellions and Urban Class Conflict"

Geschwender, James A. "Social Structure and the Negro Revolt: An Examination of Some Hypotheses"

Goldman, Ralph M. "A Theory of Conflict Processes and Organizational Offices"

Himes, Joseph S. "The Functions of Racial Conflict"

Horowitz, Irving Louis, "Consensus, Conflict, and Cooperation: A Sociological Inventory"

Katz, Daniel "Group Process and Social Integration: System Analysis of Two Movements of Social Protest"

Kellman, H.C. "Compliance, Identification and Internalization"

Kentsky, John H. "Myth, Self-fulfilling Prophecy, and Symbolic Reassurance in the East-West Conflict"

Levinger, George "Kurt Lewin's Approach to Conflict and its Resolution"

Lystad, Mary H. "Institutionalized Planning for Social Change"

Mack, Raymond W. and Snyder, Richard C. "The Analysis of Social Conflict--Toward an Overview and Synthesis"

McNeil, Elton B. "Psychology and War: A Review of Leonard Berkowitz, Aggression: A Social Psychological Analysis"

Ng, Larry, M.D. Alternatives to Violence

Nieberg, H.L. "Uses of Violence"

Nieberg, H.L. "Violence, Law, and the Social Process"

North, Robert C.; Koch, Howard E., Jr.; and Zinnes, Dina A. "The Integrative Functions of Conflict"

Olsen, Marvin E. "Perceived Legitimacy of Social Protest Actions"

Otis, Gerald, and Martin, Randall "Interaction of Extraversion and Anxiety in an Instrumental Avoidance Task"

Quarantelli, E.L. and Dynes, Russel R. "Looting in Civil Disorders: An Index of Social Change"

Rapoport, Anatol "Prospects for Experimental Games"

Rapaport, Anatol Strategy and Conscience

Schelling, Thomas C. The Strategy of Conflict

Schermerhorn, R.A. "Polarity in the Approach to Comparative Research in Ethnic Relations"

Sharp, Gene "South African Contribution to the Study of Non-Violent Action: A Review of Leo Kuper's Passive Resistance in South Africa"

Sherif, Muzafer In Common Predicament: Social Psychology of Intergroup Conflict and Cooperation

Singer, J.D. "Threat Perception and the Armament-Tension Dilemma"

Wilson, James Q. "The Strategy of Protest: Problems of Negro Civic Action"

Zawodny, J.K. Man and International Relations

Arnold, William R. "Criminality, Conflict and Adolescent Ambivalence," Social Science Quarterly, Vol. 49, No. 2 (September, 1968).

Ambivalence refers to the uncertainty of an adolescent to grow up or not. This is a decision between security, or adventure.

The paper is concerned with the meaning behind the different levels of conflict (fighting) and criminality (theft). These are mainly a phenomena of the low-income ranges.

Arnold has run a test on a hypothesis he had: engagement in conflict is an expression of need for security. The test was run with 105 peer groups (gangs) at the Illinois State Training School For Boys.

The data collected supported the hypothesis; gangs whose members had a high need for security (from broken homes, always moving, responsive to parents and police) were more often involved in conflict than criminality.

This brought up the question: why does conflict represent security? This was answered by the fact that conflict would usually involve the whole gang, while criminality would usually involve only one or two people. Also, society (including parents, police, etc.) is less against conflict than criminality. These characteristics tend to make conflict groups more organized (leader, name, meeting place).

The reasons for a group of this sort doing both is that people need both adventure and security.

Arnold has a new idea that seems to be functional and correct. For no other reason than this, I feel he has a useful idea. The area he is working in is understanding non-verbal communication on a psychological basis; and the field, if not this one area, could become quite valuable.

Bass, Bernard M., "Biases In The Evaluation Of One's Own Group, Its Allies And Opponents", Journal of Conflict Resolution, Vol. VII, No. I (March, 1963)p. 16.

Allies and enemies are commonly overappraised and underappraised, respectively. A study was taken to see how we value our allies, our competitors, and ourselves by attempting to reproduce in the laboratory conditions of conflict between allied and competing groups.

Thirty-three supervisors and engineers from the same petrochemical refinery were divided into four groups (Red, Black, Yellow, Green). The Red and Black groups were to join forces and so were the Yellow and Green groups, to draw up two plans describing:

1. Criteria for judging a development group.
2. Methods for collecting evidence about the groups.
3. Methods of weighing the evidence and agreeing on group ratings.

Each organization chose a judge to leave his group immediately and give an impartial decision on which plan was best. Also chosen were contact men to contact the opposing organization and get the report typed. Spokesmen were chosen to represent their organizations in public on why their organization's report is best.

The next morning the two organizations failed to agree on which plan was better, but the judges agreed easily that the Yellow-Green Plan was better. Each trainee was asked to rank the four groups according to "how good each group was" at four different times: before collaboration, after hearing the opposing plan, after the judges announcement, and a half day after the end of the exercise.

"Except after defeat, members continued to appraise their own groups as best. Other groups were consistently underrated in worth. Groups who became allies increased in evaluation at the expense of groups who were forced into competition. The effects were heightened depending on whether the collaborators were allied in victory or defeat or the competitors won or lost." Therefore, the "results suggest that our evaluations of other groups are only partly based on reality and observed performance".

Bennis, Benne, and Chin, The Planning of Change (Ch. 6), New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962.

Conflict in small groups occurs because of the inability of the group members to relate to one another on an interpersonal level. The dynamics of personal change are strongly affected by the dynamics of the small group. Conflict also arises between sociologists and psychologists in the study of the small group because of their different views and methods. Psychologists feel that human emotions are an important factor while sociologists are concerned with the "scientific" approach.

The importance of the small groups was shown: they satisfy the needs of the individual for affiliation, affection, and recognition. They can be harmful, too, in costing the individual his individuality. Too much social pressure towards conformity is yhe base of this conflict. Three types of conflict within the small group: 1) consensus for decision, 2) authority problem, i.e., relationship of members to a leader, 3) the problem member.

Conflict in interpersonal relations arises from the idea that there is always a motive involved which can be determined by asking: "What is this person doing to the other? What kind of relationship is he attempting to establish through this particular behavior?"

Taking the scientific approach, Lowin had a notion that actual experiments on groups could be carried out under strictly controlled conditions. Groups studying this method indulged in "role-playing" as a technique for relating to each other and as a device for teaching simple skills in behavior and speech.

Kelman performed experiments of a social nature and statistical studies concerning industry and productivity.

Leary says that the only instrument needed to measure interpersonal reflexes is another human being. The T-group method relates to this:

Some of the small group conflicts can be resolved or even prevented if the group member is a member of other groups, thus establishing significant bases for his

individuality which is in conflict with pressures toward conformity.

These conflicts can also be avoided if more time is spent studying the dynamics of interpersonal relations and relating these studies to the small group. This study should include the human "reflex" behavior as the reflex itself can be applied as a system of therapy. For example, during a day the average adult runs into a wide range of interpersonal stimuli. Everyone manifests certain role patterns which he automatically assumes in the presence of each significant "other" person in his life. By allowing the patient to react with others in a group therapy situation it is possible for him to demonstrate openly his own interpersonal reflexes.

This article relates primarily to conflict of individuals in relating to others. It also delas with the conflict of conformity vs individuality. And, finally, the three stages or phases of conflict: dependence vs interdependence vs independence.

Bernard, Jessie. "The Conceptualization of the Intergroup Relations with Special Reference to Conflict". Social Forces. Vol. 29, p. 243.

Contrast the psychological approach to the handling of conflict with the socialogical. Whereas the psychological approach assesses the conflict which appear to exist in the minds of group members, the sociological approach defines conflict as existing between groups whenever there is a fundamental incompatibility in their values, goals, interest, etc. so that if one group gets what it wants, the other group cannot get what it wants, irregardless of perception, or felt hostility.

Bernard directs the bulk of his criterion at the assumption of many psychologists that the same laws which govern interpersonal relations regulate intergroup relations. This approach, he labels the "cosmetic" approach; "it glosses over the surface but does not always come to grips with the fundamental basis for group conflict".

Bertrand, Alvin L. "The Stress-Strain Element of Social Systems: A Micro-Theory of Conflict and Change." Social Forces, Vol. 42, p. 1.

Acknowledging both the strengths and weaknesses of the cooperative vs. the contest models of social conflict, Bertrand proposes a model which seeks to capture the conceptual strengths of both schools. The details of his model are as follows: First, "Members of concrete systems are never, and in fact can never be, equally socializ3d to the goals, norms, and other elements of the system. Second, statuses and roles in a given social system are always characterized by a greater or lesser lack of specificity with regards to tolerance limits of behavior." Thus, he adds, there is always some deviation or conflict from which results a process of disorganization or disintegration which places stresses and strains on the system in such a way as to insure continuous change.

Blood, Robert O., Jr. "Resolving Family Conflicts", Journal of Conflict Resolution, Vol. IV, No. 2, pp. 101-111.

This article dealt with aspects of family conflict which have potential application to large-scale or international conflict.

Sources of family conflict:

(1) Compulsion--The family must live together. Children, particularly, have no say in the matter. Involuntary participation in the family group intensifies minor conflicts.

(2) Intimacy--Within the family many of the social inhibitions which prevent conflicts with strangers are not observed.

(3) Smallness--The smaller the family the more attention, money, or other prize may be gained by usurping one person's share. Small size also makes it easier to single out a potential enemy.

(4) Change--Family size and needs change more rapidly than the family structure can alter to cope with these needs.

(5) Competition for scarce resourses--Facilities which must be shared initiate many conflicts.

Nomative mechanisms:

The necessity of family stability has led to the development of preventative mechanisms enforced by social pressure.

(1) Prevention of potentially conflict-ridden marriages by means of the engagement period, pre-marital counsling, legal age, and social pressure against mixed marriages.

(2) Social pressure against living with in-laws.

(3) Allocation of rights and duties to particular roles.

(4) Pressure for equal treatment of family members; for children this may take the form of age-graded equality.

Mechanisms for resolving conflicts involving rare facilities:

(1) Increase facilities.

(2) Establish priority systems, thus diverting attention from the antagonist to an impersonal code.

(3) Increase autonomy of family members in certain areas to reduce tendions.

(4) Use safety valves--vacations, getting out of the house (wife), talking to 3rd party.

Processes of conflict resolution:

(1) Voting--will work in some instances. However, in many cases the power rests in the parental dyad, so some other measure is necessary.

(2) Discussion--This leads to one of three decisions:

a. consensus--mutual agreement
b. compromise--half and half
c. concession--one person gives in for the sake of harmony

(3) Mediation--usually professional. The mediator acts as a catalyst, not a decision-maker.

(4) Accommodation--Acceptance without consensus-autonomy.

(5) Separation--Not really a form of resolution, but an effective means of termination of conflict.

Conclusions:

The sources of family conflict (with the exception of scarce resourses) are not very generalizable to international conflict. The methods of conflict resolution (with the exception of separation) however, look more promising. In fact, many of them are in practice in the United Nations at the present time.

Boulding, Kenneth E. Conflict and Defense. New York: Harper & Row, 1962.

Boulding maintains that all types of conflict exhibit certain general patterns. He attempts to use these general patterns to develop a general theory of conflict, which would be instrumental in analysing and clarifying various types of conflict. These definitions are essential to his theory:

The Party-is a behavior unit, that is some aggregate or organization that is capable of assuming a number of different positions while retaining a common identity or boundary, and that is involved in conflict with another behavior unit. Competition- exists when any potential positions of two behavior units are mutually incompatible, that is where each excludes the other.

Conflict- is a situation of competition in which the parties are aware of the incompatibility of potential future positions and in which each party wishes to occupy a position that is incompatible with the wishes of the other.

In Boulding's analysis of conflict certain useful distinctions are made, for example:

Each party is catagorized as an individual, a group, or an organization.

Each party is rated on a viability scale according to its ability to continue in a conflict situation.

Conflicts are considered economic, industrial, international, or idealogical and ethical. Of course, these are somewhat arbitrary and sometimes vague distinctions and are subject to modification in particular conflicts; although, they are useful as general concepts.

Boulding realizes that ethical judgments are inevitably involved in conflict resolution and that this is reflected in the terms "constructive" and "destructive" conflict. He suggests that an optimum amount or degree of conflict could be found for any given situation while admitting that there could be genuine qualitative differences in conflicts. Stressing the need for early detection of developing conflict situations for adequate resolution, he particularly advocates an inter-

national organization to detect these budding conflicts.

Boulding's theory in its present state of development is most useful as a general framework from which conflict situations can be analysed.

Boulding, Kenneth E. The Image, Knowledge in Life and Society. Ann Arbor Paperbacks. The University of Michigan Press, 1956.

Every person has images of things he knows about the world. These images predict one's behavior toward other people and in return their own images will determine a reaction. Thus behavior depends on the image. If a particle of knowledge is thought of as a fact-image the message consists of information and its meaning is the change it produces in the image. But the message must first be rated by a value-image. If the rating is neutral it will not change the fact-image, if the evaluation is negative there will be resistance towards allowing it to modify the fact-image, and if the message is perceived as favorable than the fact-image will readily be changed. The change usually consists of the addition of some information to expand or clarify the image.

Images operate at seven levels of organization. The level of Man is most complex because of his capacity for language and recording and a much greater degree of self-consciousness and "rational behavior". An image may be public but it is always the property of the individual, not of the organization.

Images act in the growth of disciplines as well as in the lives of individuals. For examples economics, politics, history, and sociology may be examined in light of "the Image". And finally, the image may be the basis for a new science "Eixonics" which would look with new insight at old problems in established fields.

The author cites numerous examples that apply the theory to various disciplines but gives no statistical evidence, laboratory results, or case studies.

This book does not relate directly to conflict resolution but the information-theory explained above might be applied to "misunderstanding" types of conflict and perhaps less feasibly to "power struggles" and "value differences".

Most social control is unself-conscious or latent. In order for a change to occur, usually the issue in a conflict, an image of change and progress in the minds of the people must precede any action. Otherwise the people being threatened or charged will form defense mechanisms to resist change because their existing images correlate with their value systems and the incoming messages are negatively received and thus not accepted.

Conflict often seeks for the "truth". Images can only be compared to other images as there is no outside reality. The truth is then "an orderly development of the image, especially of the public and transcribed image through its confirmation by feedback messages". So a resolution of conflict would have to depend on the abilities of the differing parties to change their images to agree with the most common and tested images.

Carver, Thomas N. "The Basis of Social Conflict". American Journal of Sociology. Vol. XIII, (1908) pp. 628-637.

Furthers the thesis that conflict is the by-product of some material scarcity in nature which gives rise to a disharmony between man and man. Man answere these, he says, by developing systems of moral philosophy and theories of justice.

Carver recognizes that there are two fundamental problems confronting human beings at this time--the one industrial and the other moral; the one has to do with the improvement of the relations between man and nature and the other with the improvement of the social relations between man and man.

Clark, Kenneth. "Problems of Social Power and Social Change: A Relevant Social Psychology". Journal of Social Issues, Vol. 21, (July, 1965) p .4.

Stating that "preoccupation with methodologiaal precision and measurement, reinforced by the inanimate energy of computers, appears to limit theoretical imagination and scientific creativity", Clark calls upon social scientists to explain means of social change in terms of what Bertrand Russell called the fundamental concept lin social science- "Power". Power, he defines as being the necessary force of energy in society required to bring about or to prevent social, political, or economic change. Several hypotheses are offered as avenues for future research.

Coser, Lewis. The Functions of Social Conflict. New York: The Free Press, 1968.

Lewis Coser examines the problem of conflict from the point of view that it is a functional force in society as opposed to a dysfunctional property. His basic definition of conflict is "A struggle over values and claims to scarce status, power and resources in which the aims of the opponents are to neutralize, injure or eliminate their rivals." Using Georg Simmel's theories of conflict, Coser relates conflict to interpersonal relationships, intergroup relationships and international relationships.

From the personal view, he discusses conflict as an outcome of repressed tensions and hostile attitudes that increase in intensity with the closeness of a relationship with another person. Using the terms "scapegoat mechanism" and "realistic and nonrealistic conflicts" Coser examines how hostile feelings can be diverted from their true source to some other object. This type of behavior is usually found in smaller groups but has been shown effective as a means of arousing people to action (e.g. war, strikes, etc.)

Coser also examines the unifying tendency that conflict has between allies, or even between enemies from the standpoint that after each other's power has been appraised, they are than free to communicate on a different level assuming their power to be equal or nearly so. Conflict unites a group internally to guard against renegades that might disrupt the unity; it also defines the boundaries of the group giving the members an identity. Groups sometimes have to search for enemies so that the group structure will remain intact and will continuously struggle against a common foe.

In intergroup relations, conflict forces unrelated groups to bind together to resolve an issue, so that it unifies divergent interests into one cause for a while. These divergent groups, seeing the need for conflict, contribute productively to the society in that they (1) modify or create new laws to meet

new demands; (2) support institutional structures that center on enforcing the laws; and (3) bring to the public conscious laws that had previously been dormant. In this way it is functional to the maintenance of society.

Conflict also maintains the balance of power on an international level in that opponents have unwritten laws to follow in carrying out the conflict behavior, and also it affords a method of appraising their respective strengths so that steps toward equalizing power are more feasible. Coser asserts that with an imbalance of power, conflict is more difficult to prevent and total annihilation is more of a possibility.

Primarily through its unifying tendencies, Coser illustrates how conflict is functional in maintaining the potentialities for group effort in a society, especially one as diverse as the United States. He does concede that conflict can be dysfunctional if the enemy is only a scapegoat for internal problems and if the enemy is nonrealistic in that it binds people together superficially to combat a nonexistent opponent.

Deutsch, M.A. and Krauss, Robert "The Effect of Threat Upon Interpersonal Bargaining" Journal of Abnormal Psychology, Vol. 61, No. 2, (1960) pp. 181-189.

The essential features of a bargaining situation exist when:

1. both parties perceive the possibility of reaching an agreement where both parties are better off or no worse off,
2. more than one such agreement could be reached, or
3. each has conflicting preferences or opposed interests with regards to different arguments.

Bargaining situations highlight the possibility that even when cooperation would be mutually advantageious, shared purposes may not develop and an agreement may not be reached. Interraction may be regulated antagonistically rather than normatively.

An agreement is more likely to be reached if the cooperative interests are stronger than the competitive interests and if there are few or no threats involved. The authors defined threat as "the expression of an intention to do something detrimental to the interests of another." The availability of a means of threat makes it more difficult to reach an agreement as was shown by the following experiment.

Two people were given two trucks each with their own route and one shorter main route between the two alternate routes. When there was no means of threat available to each person an efficient workable system was devised whereby each truck could use the main route equally. When one person was given control of the gate at no end of the main route an agreement of the use of that route was more difficult to reach and the efficiency of the trucks was decreased. When both people were given control of the gates, one at each end, the situation was extremely difficult to reach. In some cases an agreement was never made.

There is a greater chance for conflict resolution if the cooperative interests are stronger than the competitive and if it can be shown to the parties involved that it is more beneficial to each to work together.

In interpersonal relationships, a person is more likely to reast against rather than accept a threat to his self-esteem. Without a threat or stress situation a person percieves that his behavior is within his own control and is more likely to cooperate instead of resisting.

Deutsch, Morton "Trust and Suspicion" Journal of Conflict Resolution, Vol. 11, (1958) pp. 265-279.

In this classic article, Deutsch makes a commendable stab at a very interesting aspect of conflict resolution. Starting out with a basic definition, the author says that "an individual may be said to have trust in the occurence of an event if he expects its occurrence and his expectation leads to behavior which he perceives to have greater negative motivational consequences if the expectation is not confirmed than positive motivational consequence if it is confirmed. An individual may be said to be suspicious of the occurrence of an event if the disconfirmation of the expectation of the event's occurrence is preferred to its confirmation and if the expectation of its occurrence leads to behavior which is intended to reduce its negative motivational consequences."

Elaborating on this concept of a trust-suspicion relationship, Deutsch points out that the responsibility of one toward another's trust is determined either by situational ethics or by personal integrity. To illustrate the complementary nature of these two forces, the author forwards the example of two prisoners taken mutually for the same crime. The two were separated and each told afterward that sentencing would be determined largely on the basis of degree of cooperation. Hence, each prisoner was put on the spot, not knowing whether the other would confess and each debating the move himself. Personal integrity was hence pitted against situational pressures in a unique and striking example of intense intra-personal conflict.

At this point, Deutsch further subdivides the situational aspect of trust. The resulting categories are called, in effect, varying types of motivational orientation. First of all, then, the cooperative situation is one in which each party is depencent on the other and on himself and knows the other feels the same. The individualistic frame of reference, on the other hand,

implies a lack of concern for anyone but oneself, while the competitive situation entails not only egocentricism. but also a driving desire to do better than the other party. In all these cases a knowledge that the other person involved has similar feelings is basic to Deutsch's theory.

Applying these ideas, the author next asserts that no possibility for rational behavior exists under either individualistic or competitive circumstances, and furthermore that for mutual cooperation to prevail, each person must know how the other will act if the relationship if broken.

Extrapolating this point, we may now conclude, as does Deutsch, that individualistic orientation may be overcome by communication, as this avenue makes clear (1) one's intentions, (2) his expectations, (3) the planned reaction to violation of expectation, and (4) a means of restoration of original-relationhip patterns.

A final point the author makes involves the introduction of a third party into the relationship. This situation, Deutsch says, tends to build a stronger degree of mutual trust between the two original parties involved.

Dollard, J., Doob, L.W., Miller, N.E., Mowrer, N.E., and Sears, R.R.
Frustration and Aggression, Yale University Press, 1939.

Dollard et. al., are herein making a case for the usefulness of conceptualizing human interaction in terms of frustration and aggression. The basic thesis of the book is that aggression, whether, it be overt, repressed, delayed, disguised, or displaced, is always a consequence of frustration.

Frustration and Aggression is mainly theoretical in nature. "Instigator, strength of instigation, goal-response, substitute response, aggression, and frustration" are the fundamental concepts with which the book deals in deriving some basic psychological principles concerning the dynamics of frustration-aggression.

The authors attempt to give their theory both historical and pragmatic relevance. They try to demonstrate how historically basic and significant the idea of frustration has been by quoting poetry, Webster, William James, Freud, and Marx. Aiming at pragmatic relevance, i.e. analytic usefulness, the authors apply their hypothesis to the child, adolescent, and adult states to criminality, to political ideologies, and thru a case study, to the primitive society of the Ashanti.

This book offers no direct suggestions for the analysis, prevention, or resolution of conflict, it does do so for aggression. For example, the book suggests that (1) "in general it may be said that with the strength of frustration held constant, the greater the anticipation of punishment for a given act of aggression, the less likely is that act to occur; and (2) secondly with the anticipation of punishment held constant, the greater the strength of the frustration, the more apt aggression is to occur."

Any type of conflict could be conceptualized within the frustration-aggression hypothesis. How useful such a conceptualization would be is, of course, a matter of debate. In sum, the theory is too all-enclusive to be useful in all particular cases. Though probably always a partial tool, it can however be helpful in understanding some types of conflict.

Dubin, Robert "Industrial Conflict and Social Welfare." Journal of Conflict Resolution, Vol. 1, (1957) pp. 179.

Five propositions are central to this essay:

1. The social structure of complex industrial societies is continuously changing.
2. Conflict between groups is a fundamental social process.
3. Conflict between groups becomes institutionalized.
4. Resolutions of group conflict determine the direction of social change.
5. Social welfare depends upon the outcome of group conflict.

Each of the headings are more completely explained and rest upon many testable hypotheses. This paper sets forth the connections among the five propositions just stated. Attention is restricted to industrial relations and industrial conflict as the data for explication conclusions.

Etzioni, Amitai "Toward a Theory of Guided Societal Change." Social Casework, Vol. 49, pp. 335.

Etzioni attacks the whole manner in which a society resolves its social problems. He observes that though "the problem may trimmed, redefined, redistributed, it is only infrequently been treated adequately." In the U.S. for instance, blue ribbon committees are very quickly set up but the persons on these committees, by the very nature of their prestige, have little systematic knowledge of the underlying factors of the problem.

The key to social change in this analysis Etzioni considers to be "power". More specifically, that autonomous power of groups in order for the capacity for the sustenance of political give-and-take must be maintained in the social structure. Etzioni is arguing, then, that the social sciences should hence gear themselves to the study of the successes and failures of that complex of variables which constitute this give and take, as opposed to the traditional perspective of control analysis.

Fink, Clinton F. "Some Conceptual Difficulties in the Theory of Social Conflict" Journal of Conflict Resolution, (December, 1968) pp. 412-460.

The case for the Generalist Approach to the study of conflict resolution. Some of the problems of just having a certain group of social scientists, for example, economists working alone on conflict resolution are that a specific group often collects far too much data to utilize it effectively. No branch of social science alone contains enough intellectual resources to formulate a conflict theory. It will require the joint efforts of all social scientist to work together for international understanding.

One approach would be the joining of many special theories into one general theory. However, information is lost in a special theory and so you must also formulate sub-theory.

Middle Range Theories may be the answer for a basis of a beginning.

L. They are sufficiently abstract to transcend sheer description or empirical generalities. For example: Ethnic Conflict.

2. They cut across distincitons between Micro and Macro socialogical problems.

A general social conflict theory would be ideal. Already extent theories of such things as intraorganizational conflict could be pooled and used for tools to learn more knowledge to build general theory for deriving more special theories. There would be tremendous difficulties in identifying the domains of the special theories. There would also be a good deal of overlapping of functions. Again there are a tremendous number of levels of conflict that must be resolved before you can even reach the international level. There is even a lot of conflict on what conflicts exist. Even a partial listing is lengthy. There are Intra-and Interpersonal conflicts, intra- and inter-family conflicts, fueds, intra-inter-communities conflicts, intra-inter sectional conflicts, labor conflicts, political conflicts, racial conflicts, religious conflicts, antiSematism, ideological differances, competitive

conflicts, national conflicts, cultural conflicts, cold war, conflicts between heterosocial groups, homosocial groups, group boundries, all layers of conflict between equals vs. equals, superordinates vs. subordinates, whole vs. part and on and on ad infinitum.

Things are further confused by the fact that people belong to two groups: Involuntary Groups ie. sex, etc. and Voluntary Groups i.e. college, etc. Any factor that may be critical in one conflict may be entirely missing or irrelavent ot the conflict in another situation. Some conflicts may mask the real real, underlying source of conflict. With all the complexities of the problem and vastness of it a multidisciplinary approach and a good general theory would be a great step forward.

Due to the complexity of the problem and its ramifications, Watzlawick's theories would be very applicable. His concious vs. unconcious theory to name one thing.

Friedland, William H. "For a Socialogical Concept of Charisma" Vol. 43, No. 1, p. 8.

Friedland operationalizes Weber's concept of "charisma" in terms of the social context within which charisma develops; and in a sociological, rather than Weber's psychological, perspective. Focusing on modern African leadership in Tanganyika, charisma, viewed in this light, seems to appear in situations where (a) leaders formulate inchoate sentiments deeply held by masses; (b) the expression of such sentiments is seen as hazardous; and (c) when success of obtaining espoused goals as judged by the masses is registered.

Gans, Herbert J. "The Ghetto Rebellions and Urban Class Conflict." Academy of Political Science Proceedings, Vol. 29, No. 1, p. 42.

The ghetto rebellions, state Gans, must be also understood, in addition to the multitudinous and sundry colloquial definitions, as a social process; an act of collective behavior, based upon a series of events in a spiraling process which forms the background of the actual outbreak incident. And, because of mass media, the knowledge that a rebellion is going on elsewhere, particularly in a nearby city, raises tension levels in the ghetto, outside it, and among the police increasing the likelihood of an inciting incident.

Gans views these rebellions as being a black vs. lower class white phenomena. It is the lower white class who feel themselves threatened and use its greater influence in city administrative machinery to ensure that actions against the threat will be taken in their interest.

Geschwender, James A. "Social Structure and the Negro Revolt: An Examination of Some Hypotheses." Social Forces, Vol. 43, No. 2. p. 248.

Five hypotheses which purport to account for current "Negro Revolt" were taken form the literature. Data were examined which resulted in the rejection of two of these. The three which remained were reconciled with each other in terms of their common basis in the concept of relative deprivation.

The author suggests, based upon his research, that certain kinds of objective conditions will produce feelings of relative deprivation, which will, in turn, produce rebellion. As far as the American Negro is concerned, these conditions are an educational increase level one and one-half times the national average coupled with a downward spiraling income gain rate relative to the larger society.

Goldman, Ralph M. "A Theory of Conflict Processes and Organizational Offices" Journal of Conflict Resolution. Sept., 1966. pp. 328-43.

The proportions of the theory, based on the proposition that a consequence of conflict is the resolution; that is the achievement of some kind of unity, even if it involves the annihilation of one of the conflicting parties, is as follows:

1) All conflicts are started and ended by events of a decisional character.
2) All conflicts come under at least one of these three types.
   a) disagreement about "task-expectations"
   b) disagreements about "role-performances"
   c) disagreements about conditions of encumbency.
3) A decision about one or more of the three types just mentioned is required to resolve a conflict cycle.
4) One may study developmental tendencies of a whole organization by studying major organizational offices. (if we study the progress of the communication between dept. heads & general instructors we may get an insight into the communication progress of the college)

A conflict situation is defined as:

> A social relationship between two or more parties, in which at laast one of the parties perceives the other as an adversary engaging in behaviors designed to destroy, injure, thwart, or gain scarce resources at the expense of the perceiver.

Some hypothesis utilizing the theory stated above:

1) the more standardized the groups situations, the more agreement about investiture or encumbency.
2) as a position on task expectations becomes more standardized, the position on role-structure becomes more explicit and stable.

3) Adversaties tend to be willing to incur greater costs in conflict cycles of the investiture process than in those of task-expectations or role-performance.

4) the more loyal the person to the institution, the less he is willing to put on the line in a conflict cycle.

5) The less explicit the conflict topic the longer the conflict cycle.

This last hypothesis really interests me. It is like Watzlowicks' second axiom.

It is in this context that we can say that the conflicts we have observed in class would not have lasted so long if we would be able to see beyond the front, or fake conflict, and observe the real meaning behind the mere words. Only when we focus on the real conflict in an explicit manner can we approach a resolution of that conflict.

Himes, Joseph S. "The Functions of Racial Conflict". Social Forces, Vol. 45, No. 1, pp. 66-67.

Himes' paper is a general overview of the equal rights movement, in terms of conflict models, of blacks in the United States. He considers social conflict to be a normal human process. In his analysis, he employs the concept, "realistic conflict", which he defines as "the rational organized overt action by Negroes, initiating demands for specific goals, and utilizing collective sanctions to enforce these demands".

Himes views race relations in this country as being one of power relations as does H.M. Blalock. In this sense, then, realistic social conflict is an enterprise in the calculated mobilization and application of social power to sanction collective demands for specific structural changes. In general, Himes analysis revealed that realistic racial conflict 1) Alters the social structure 2) Extends social communication 3) Enhances social solidarity and 4) facilitates personal identity.

Horowitz, Irving Louis, "Consensus, Conflict, and Cooperation: A Sociological Inventory", Social Forces, 41: 177-188, (October, 1962 - May, 1963).

In his article, Horowitz tries to distinguish between consensus and conflict theory, and he leans toward conflict theory as more workable in dealing with conflict situations.

In distinguishing between the two theories, Horowitz found consensus theory difficult. He said that consensus theorists have not come to a consensus on a definition for it. However, he cited various viewpoints. Some define consensus as an "adjustment of social dissension". Others call it agreement between role behavior and role expectation. Consensus could be defined as adjustment or accord based on self-interest motivations or even accord to suppress self-interest motivations for the sake of general social cohesion. Perhaps the simplest defination is the existence of similar orientations toward something. Horowitz said that consensus theory is most frequently indentified with functional efficiency, operating on the principle that an increase in consensus will result in increased functional efficacy and democratic polity. And, inversely, a decrease in consensus creates social disorganization and dysfunction. There are certain corollaries implied in consensus theory. First, it implies spontaneity. In other words, consensus happens by natural, unpremeditated agreement. Second, consensus theory implies the basic good of balance, social equilibrium, and harmony. It views any conflict as deviancy from normal tranquility. Since consensus sees conflict as "necessarily destructive of the social organism", it puts conflict outside the framework of social structure.

But the opposite view, conflict theory, says that if social structure is viewed as a "dynamic balance of disharmonious parts" then conflict is intrinsic and organic to social structure. Therefore conflict is not a threat to the social system. Conflict theory does not necessarily imply disorganization, but rather, accepts the presence of conflicting forces or ideas.

Another way to clarify the difference between conflict and consensus theory is to contrast their approach to conflict resolution. Consensus theory resolves conflicts by determining why men co-operate and reinforcing it. On the other hand, conflict theory analyzes why men conflict.

To point out the superiority of conflict theory, Horowitz cited the disadvantage of consensus theory. With consensus theory, it is difficult to examine unstable relations because a) short-lived conflicts are impossible to predict, b) we must deal with conflicts in their social environmejt and thus there are no control groups, and c) evaluations of unstable relations are often from second-and third-handed sources.

In contrast, Horowitz says that conflict theory is a superior analytical tool because it covers a wider and more profound range of questions. Conflict theory turns to observable fact where consensus depends on subjectivism which has a "narrowing effect" on the conduct of social science.

Though he favors conflict theory, Horowitz tries to explain consensus theory's popularity. First of all, in the United States particularly there is a search for what is most democratic. Consensus theorists think decision-making by consensus is more democratic, though Horowitz thinks this pretense is absurd. Second, in a technological-society context, consensus theory is the last personal touch in decision-making. And finally, sociologists have found mass persuasion to be more effedtive than mass terror in acquiring political and economic loyalties.

Horowitz's final concern in his article is to distinguish between consensus and cooperation. First, consensus stands for internal agreement. Cooperation does not require internal agreement but merely working continuity. Second, consensus necessitates agreement on content of behavior, but cooperation necessitates agreement on the form of behavior. Finally consensus concerns itself with summary of agreements, but cooperation concerns itself with toleration of differences.

Katz, Daniel. "Group Process and Social Integration: System Analysis of Two Movements of Social Protest." Journal of Conflict Resolution. Vol. 23, No. 1, p. 3.

Operating from the assumption that social scientists have too long studied the group as an interaction unit isolated from socio-historical structure and not studies the organized groups or social movements in conflict in society, Katz compares the "civil rights" movement in the U.S. to the protests against the war in Viet Nam.

Leaning heavily on Ashby's work of systems analysis (1952), Katz views the American social structure as a suprasystem in which multi-group conflict becomes silenced by the many echelons of bureaucracy before it finally reaches the decision-making level.

He also proposes the concept of "built-in defenses" as being intrinsic to any bureaucratic structure; or, the rules of the organization are much harder to change in the actual operations of the various sub-systems than a simple policy change on top might dictate, to state this proposition differently. And these defenses act as regulators of the system against any change to radical to tradition.

With respect to the two social movements in this country presently, Katz postulates that the major difference between them is that one, the civil rights movement, has a long tradition and is linked with many forces of the system moving generally in the same direction, while the other, the peace movement, is a relatively new thing moving against the fundamental socialization process of most Americans. Both, however, do find legitimacy within the honored values of the suprasystem itself.

Kellman, H.C. "Compliance, Identification and Internalization": Three Processes in Attitude Change" Journal of Conflict Resolution Vol. II, No. 1, pp. 51-60.

It is important to know that there has been an attitude change, but it is of crucial importance to know if the organism accepts influence to achieve favorable reaction (compliance) or the organism wants to establish or maintain satisfying self-defining relations in which the specific content or belief is more or less irrelevant (identification) or the organism adopted induced behavior because it was congruent with its value system (internalization).

An experiment was set up to test the following hypotheses:

1. attitudes adopted from a communicator whose power is based on means-control will tend to be expressed only under conditions of surveillance by the communicator (compliance).
2. attitudes from communicator whose power is based on attractiveness will tend to be expressed under conditions of salience (identification).
3. attitudes from credibility power of communicator will be expressed under conditions of relevance of the issue regardless of surveillance or saliance (internalization).
4. low power communicator will have low adoptation of under any condition

The experiment used Negro college freshmen. The communication topic was, should Negro colleges desegregate (time 1954) Speakers purporting the same message (on tape) presented their position in one of the above manners; Students were tested under conditions of support for the communicator and lack of support. Although the above hypotheses were valid it is only a tendency rather than a marked association.

Kentsky, John H. "Myth, Self-fulfilling Prophecy, and Symbolic Reassurance in the East-West Conflict" Journal of Conflict Resolution, Vol. 9, No. 1, pp. 1-17.

Definitions

This article starts by quoting definitions of "myth", self-fulfilling prophecy, and "reassuring symbol", from works by Georges Sokel, Robert K. Merten, and Murray Edelman, respectively. A "myth" is a prediction of the future, usually utopiam, which is not used to induce people to take certain actions. The significance of the myth is NOT its accuracy as a prediction of the future (in fact, myths are usually lousy prophecies), but rather the action it inspires among the large group of its believers. Examples of "myths" are the "people" (that is, you, the reader) actually make the government's decisions in a democracy. A reassuring symbol is a concept to which leaders pay lip-service, using it to reassure their followers that all is well with the leaders' conduct. As with a myth, the significance of symbolic reassurance is not the reality (if any) which lies behind it, but rather its tranquilizing effect on the actions of its believers. An instance of symbolic reassurance was the American public's belief in President Eisenhower's "anti-communism", which permitted Eisenhower to reach a compromise agreement with North Korea. The reader may by now have guessed that the same concept may be used by leaders under different circumstances as a myth to inspire followers to action or as a reassuring symbol to lull them into tranquility, or inaction. Finally, it is important to point out that political leaders themselves usually believe in the myths and symbols that they espense. A "self-fulfilling prophecy" is defined as in Watzlawick---that is, a self-fulfilling prophedy is an originally false definition of a situation which evoles actions that will make the originally false conception come true.

Myth, Self-fulfilling Prophecy, and Symbolic Reassurance in the East-West Conflict

Having made these definitions, the article proceeds to analyze East-West relationships since the Russian Revolution.

In the twentieth century, there have been a series of social revolutions in underdeveloped countries. In most cases, the revolutions have been led by Western-educated intellectuals, who had returned to their countries espousing irrelevant ideologies developed in the industrialized nations (e.g., the ideology of "Democracy", which presupposes a literate, informed citizenry.) But these irrelevant ideologies performed the function of a myth, inciting actions---notably anti-colonial independance movements---by massive followings of the nationalistic leaders. In addition, these ideologies in many cases served as reassuring symbols to developed countries. For instance, today's Republic of China may have a wierd government indeed, but U.S. citizens are reassured by the fact that this "nation of the Free World" is based on a "democratic" system of "free elections".

The leaders of the Russian Revolution happened to believe in a most unfortunate myth---Marxism. According to this myth (1) the Soviet Revolution was a preletarian (that is, workers') movement--while in fact it had been primarily a peasant revolution; (2) the Russian Revolution must necessarily be the start of a world-wide preletarian revolution; and (3) the capitalist world is the inevitable enemy of the communist world.

This myth turned out to be a self-fulfilling prophecy. The Soviet Union's leaders initially were convinced that their own movement would fail unless supported by a world-wide workers' revolution. So they supplied aid and advice to revolutionary communist parties abroad. This was one of several factors which in fact made the capitalist countries regard the USSR as an enemy. Ironically, conservative Western politicians of the 1920's and 1930's viewed

the Russian Revolution as a dangerous example to their own countries' citizens...because they swallowed the Soviet myth that Russia had undergone a workers' revolution against captitlism. The developed countries had obviously had no cause to fear peasants' revolutions, but unions were viewed as another matter. Hence the "Red scares" in the U.S. and abroad, with their concentration on leftist union activities.

Over the years, as the Soviet Union grew to an industrialized, well-established major power, it became obvious to her leaders that world revolution was not necessary for their society's survival. After Stalin's death, the Russian government switched to a strategy of peaceful coexistence with the West. But to justify to their followers their retreat from a crusade for world communism, the communist leadership continued to pay lip-service to the idea that they were in the process of "burying" the capitalist states. The concept of an eventual world-wide workers' revolution had changed from a myth inspiring action to a reassuring symbol masking inaction.

Levinger, George. "Kurt Lewin's Approach to Conflict and its Resolution" Journal of Conflict Resolution. Vol. 1, No. 4, pp. 329-340.

Concepts to be used in this approach are:

life-space: the totality of perceived effectual environment

region: the division that is denoting activity.

locomotion: change in persons position.

barrier: that which offers resistance to locomotion.

valence: attractive (positive) or repulsive (negative) charactor of region

goal: aregion of positive valence.

There are three basic cases of conflict situations.

plus-plus: conflict between two equally attractive objectives.

minus-minus: conflict in choosing one of two equally distainful tasks.

plus-minus: conflict of positive and negative valences in one region.

A person in a region of conflict may (1) choose to tolerate it. (2) He may locomote in behavior or in body. (When the barriers are weak.) (3) He may change his perception of conflicting forces. (4) Relocate so conflicts is new obsolete.

An analysis of the Disarmament issue: since WWI nations have been talking more about the reduction in armaments and their quest for peace. At the same time there has been a steady increase in military expenditures. This is an example of plus-minus conflex. While we are talking, we all are sure that we want to disarm for many reasons, but if we stop and think the idea over there is a point were we become a little less sure. There is equal force. Since tension is an action of strength of opposing forces, we find the tension increasing, the more the increases of positive force drives this nation to approach the goal.

Lystad, Mary H. "Institutionalized Planning for Social Change". Sociology and Social Research, Vol. 44, (Jan, 1960), p. 164.

In this study of an organization which plans for change in the field of social welfare, it was found that those functions which directly involve initiation of community changes, i.e. planning functions, less frequently engaged in , than those functions which primarily set the stage for overcoming resistance to change, i.e. public relations functions.

It was also found that once a decision was made to initiate change, subsequent decisions concerning a course of action occured less often than did mere discussion of the problem. Above all else, this study of institutionalized change emanating from scientific advances points out the presence of resistance to change even among persons already committed to planning for it.

Mack, Raymond W. & Snyder, Richard C. "The Analysis of Social Conflict--Toward an Overview and Synthesis". Journal of Conflict Resolution. Vol. 1, No. 2, (1957) pp. 212-248.

The main objective of this article is, as the the title states, to present an overview and synthesis, a brief summary of that which has already been discovered, and an indication for a better future analysis of the field.

"Inadequate coneeptualization and theorizing have had important consequences. First, generalization across disciplinary or subject matter lines has been slow to develop and is often implicit. Second, it has been difficult to link propositions systematically. Third, research has not always been guided by hypotheses of acceptable power and significance. Fourth, no well-rounded body of case materials based on comparative types, unifying concepts, and general hypotheses has developed".

The authors argue the need for "further intellectual stocktaking--for a propositional survey and assessment and for more precise conceptualization." They attempt to suggest in simplified form the general lines along which this might be carried out.

1. includes list of the chapter headings and some explanation, to indicate the general context on the article.
2. Basic Propositions (Deals with the usefullness of a propositional survey, and the characteristics of existing propostiona.)
3. The Problem of Conceptualization and Choices of Major Variables (Definitions and distinctions, properities of conflictful behavior and conflict relationships, types of conflict, underlying sources, conditions, the social context, and functions of conflict.)
4. The Parties to Conflict: Implications of Nature, Number, and Internal Characteristics.
5. Conflict as an Interaction System

Modes of Resolution (Arbitration, mediation, negotiation, inquiry, legislation, judicial settlement, informal consensus, the market, violence or force, authoritative command) power relations, nature and degree of institutionalization, direct, unmediated systems vs. mediated representational systems, system limitations and boundaries.

Each chapter contains a summary and there is a brief conclusion. Also there is a large bibliography.

The article can be applied to all conflict situations---intrapersonal, interpersonal, interorganizational, intergroup--but the examples given are mainly industrial and international.

McNeil, Elton B., "Psychology and War: A Review of Leonard Berkowitz, AGRESSION: A SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS", Journal of Conflict Resolution, Vol. VII, No. III, (Dec. 1963), p. 777.

The lay person seems to find it convenient and comfortable to understand incomprehensible political and national behaviors as a manifestation of emotional illness, for in this realm all things irrational seem reasonable.

Berkowitz's social psychological analysis of agression appears to be an important bridge between the different views of personal pathology and political-historical-economic views of the nature of human conflict. Berkowitz says, "War among nations is a social phenomenon, not a biological one", which means that there is no "instinct" doctrine of war; that agression is in the service of the accumulation of power, wealth, personal freedom, or national destiny.

There are two basic alternatives to the inhibition of agressive action: fear of punishment and the urge not to violate one's standard of conduct. World opinion, though, has little effect in times of "nationalistic" adventuring, and so fear of punishment may be our only resource until a "world-wide community of emotional co-envolvement" is developed.

To have intergroup conflict, people must be categorized as a unit and collectively regarded as a frustrating agent, the group must be visible, ie. be different, and there must be some frustrating contact with the group.

To reduce intergroup conflict, the best procedure is to lessen the occurrence of frustrations by communications advocating peace and harmony, minimizing group differances, the establishment of perceived interdependence among people and nations, and the provision of equal status contacts among the various peoples.

Since men most often are political leaders, and since they have learned more agressive habits with fewer inhibitions, we need only add

frequent frustrations throughout childhood to have the picture of a person ready to become quickly angry. The strength of agressive actions exhibited by a person is a joint function of the intensity of his anger, the strength of his habitual tendencies to respond agressively to agression cues.

For persistent lawbreakers he adds others including that they are alienated, hostile, and more easily frustrated.

Intergroup hostility is the backdrop before which the personal drama of leadership is played to its fatal conclusion.

Ng, Larry, M.D. (Ed.) Alternatives to Violence. Time-Life Books, 1968.

This book consists of the thoughts of twenty-one individuals from many fields and disciplines on the subject of violence and alternatives to violence. The contributors were asked to tell how they thought violence could best be climinated, and predictably most told what their area of interest could contribute to this goal. (For example, Timothy Leary sees drugs as the answer, Robert McNamara says that development and the World Bank are what are needed, etc.)

Contributors vary considerably in their attitudes toward conflict and violence. Some see it as an evil that must be eliminated; others consider it a necessity. Most regard violence as a symptom rather than a cause and write of methods of dealing with the conditions which cause violence.

Erich Fromm: possibility of aggression in man, but no necessity for it - difference between healthy and unhealthy hostility.

Arthur Koestler: Problem is not aggressiveness, but misplaced loyalty - religious and national wars.

Abraham Maslow: discontent is good - healthy aggression - leads to progress.

C.H. Waddington: must provide people's lives with meaning - teach nonviolent methods - provide outlets for aggression.

Edmund Carpenter: cruelty (and violence) not incompatible with love.

George Catlin: answer lies in interdisciplinary studies.

Henry Ford II: need opportunities for all.

Louis Leakey: Must apply reason and conscience to problems - need religious faith.

S. Radhakrishnan: need education in true democracy.

Alan Watts: Zen - impossible to improve self or world by force.

Harold Lasswell: need World Community Association to break down parochial loyalties and create broader symbols.

Kenneth Appel: need social improvement.

Robert McNamara: economic status and violence connected - security comes from development.

Paul Martin: justice achieved through nonviolence will lead to peace.

Stuart Mudd: need cooperative international development of resources.

Glenn Scaborg: must use science constructively.

Arnold Toynbee: need opportunities for personal participation in human affairs, and outlets for aggression (sports and conquest of non-human nature)

Paul MacLean: neural machinery for coordinating the three parts of man's brain not well developed. (1) reptilian brain: oldest, controls stereotyped behavior based on ancestral learning, incapable of learning to cope with new situations. (2) old mammalian brain: further influences behavior concerned with self=preservation and species - preservation (3) new mammalian brain: controls emotions, more highly developed in man than in any other animal- still hung up on animal brain, but new mammalian brain well enough developed that man can learn to avoid self-destruction - have made significant progress in controlling emotions in last 2,000 years.

Timothy Leary: violence is "killing by machine at a distance" - governments are main practitioners of violence - secede from the government - destroy all death-dealing machines from rifles to atom bombs - use drugs to alter man's psychological makeup.

Harvey Wheeler: Americans traditionally solve problems with violence- only certain kinds of violence considered "bad" - American racist culture violence - can end violation (and counter-violence) by encouraging black power, funding trips for blacks to developing nations so they can observe hoe other groups are solving their problems of cultural development, funding programs for development of autonomous black culture, and reinterpretting first amendment to include right to engage in civil disobedience -

urban riots may be almost over - riots don't strike same place twice - riots change things and have permanent therapeutic effect - revolutions following French Revolution comparatively unbloody ritual revolutions- riots now need be less severe to have effect - rulers already afraid.

Nieberg, H.L. "Uses of Violence". Journal of Conflict Resolution, Vol. 7, p. 43.

Nieberg in this paper agrees with the basic premises of Georg Simmel as outlined in Coser. He recognizes that violence, far from being an exception to human existence, is the "underlying, tacit, omnipresent fact" of domestic life. And more fundamentally, he recognizes that the multitudinous threats of violence, to which all systems must learn to adjust themselves, form the basis of social change.

Conflict, in functional terms, is the means of discovering consensus and of creating agreed terms of collaboration to Nieburg. Whereas "law", the concept, sides with some and against others while maintaining the status quo, the process of social change must carry as a threat the notion of violence which challenges the reserves of force held by the state before meaningful progress is made.

Interesting is his hypothesis that just as soon as the threat and fear of this potential approach this threshhold, a general tendency for non-enforcement of the law appears. In Nieber's words, "The status quo interests begin to share with the disaffected groups a desire to evade and to change law."

"Violence," hence, appears to be to Nieber the basis of political power. And systems fall, he postulates, when their capacities for dealing with threatened violence fail. In democratic societies, this generally means that changing the law at this point gains precedence over enforcing it.

Nieburg, H.L. "Violence, Law, and the Social Process". Journal of Conflict Resolution. Vol. 11, (March, 1968), pp. 17.

With reference to the recent urban ghetto rebellions in America, Nieburg distinguishes between two types of violence; one functional, of which it is the normal, expected purpose of police to control, with the other being political. Nieburg defines political violence as being that violence capable of infinite escalation the cost of which to society exceeds acceptable levels. "It addresses itself to changing the very system of social norms which police power is designed to protect."

Essential to Niebury's analysis is his concept of "cost-risk benefits". In this realm of thought, he falls in line with the school of conflict theorists when he states that, quite possibly, "The capability and determination to exact unacceptable cost from the enemy, even at greater cost to oneself, may be the only means available for a small nation or a minority group to seek to maintain some respect for its independence, values, demands and political bargaining power..."

North, Robert C; Koch, Howard E., Jr.; and Zinnes, Dian A. "The Integrative Functions of Conflict", Journal of Conflict Resolution, Vol. 4, (1960), pp. 355-374.

Although also recognizing the possible negative effects of conflict, "The Integrative Funcitons of Conflict" offers a theoretical examination of the conditions under which conflict will produce and maintain a stronger bond between conflicting parties than existed before.

As used in this study, communication is a directive or statement which, if accepted, directly influences the behavior of the receiver. The main unit of concern, the organization, is composed of people who share at least one common -purpose, are mutually able to communicate, and thus can co-ordinate their activities. Conflict is said to develop between or within these organizations when two or more organizational purposes/goals (policy conditions) are incompatible.

The study distinguishes two types of conflict, latent and overt, concerning itself mainly with the latter as that involves attempts to achieve the organizational goal. Overt conflict itself is subdivided into four possible forms: L. nonviolent bid or proposal; 2. nonviolent commitment; 3. violent bid or threat; 4. violent action.

Integration can be considered in terms of the following:
1. the probability that conflicts will be resolved without the use of violence; 2. a relationship which increases as the frequency of conflicts decreases; 3. relative to the number and importance of compatible policy conditions; 5. relative to the number and significance of communications exchanged; 6. the overlapping of membership. The specific concept used relates to the particular type of conflict in question, i.e. the first and third are easily adaptable to nonviolent bids, proposals, and commitments, etc.

Using these basic definitions, the article examine both direct and indirect

contributions toward integration of conflicting parties made by conflict. The binding values of conflicts are briefly exemplified with the internal affairs of single states. By allowing and encouraging loyalty to numerous institutions simultaneously (Church, crown, family, constitution, political party, etc.) the pluralistic state utilizes a system of checks and balances that insures stability. The diversity of the loyalties themselves insures a general cohesion by presenting deep cleavage along a single line of allegiance: although there may be considerable expression of conflict, the over-all system itself usually remains unthreatened. Conversely, monolithic societies, unable to tolerate a plurality or loyalties and asso= ciations, divert popular hostilities from themselves to institutionalized enemies.

This difference is recognized and reflected by the method negotiation or manipulation suggested for the resolution of intergroup conflict. Being a settlement that allows each side to exactly identify its losses and gains by being arrived at in terms of the original goals, compromise is open to the development of new dissatisfactions or the revival of old, either way leading to the continuance of the two group, conflicting relationship. Integration, however, by posing new alternatives, affords the opportunity for cooperative effort and the formation of a new organization.

Steps proposed toward this end are: 1. clear statement of policy conditions and dissatisfactions--to discover any common interests; 2. re-evaluation of policy conditions in view of others position and implications of the situation. Through the re-ordering of organizational priorities to fit the situation, a solution can be obtained in which both organizations' goals have a place and neither side has to sacrifice anything. Integration transcends the original issues and provides accordingly satisfactory con= ditions to both parties.

The role of overt conflict in attaining such integration is twofold: First, intragroup conflict can be used to reinforce already existant bonds and to insure the continuance of an organization. Intergroup conflict, aside from strengthening intragroup integration by offering a vent for dissatisfactions, can indicate the goals, attitudes, and positions of each group that preclude extensive cooperation or possible integration.

Olsen, Marvin E. "Perceived Legitimacy of Social Protest Actions". Social Ppoblems, Vol. 15, p. 297.

This paper reports the results of a limited investigation into the legitimacy aspects of social protest in this country. And as the author expected, those of the higher education were considerably more tolerant than others for the various types of protest action as epitomized by the "civil rights" movement. However, from the viewpoint of conflict theory development, of more significance was the finding of what Olsen terms contradictory strains running through the mentalities of white Americans with regard to the espoused support of civil rights goals as correlated with the actual forms of action which are acceptable to these persons for attaining these goals. In other words, more lip service is given than is actual support.

Furthermore, and of possibly even more significance, the author found that if the effects of the strong attitudes of political incapability and discontentment are controlled for lower class whites, their adjusted protest legitimacy scores are just as high as those for educated persons.

Otis, Gerald & Martin, Randall. "Interaction of Extraversion and Anxiety in an Instrumental Avoidance Task" Journal of Experimental Research in Personality. Vol. 3, No. 1. (June, 1968)

The experiment was designed to explore the interaction of extraversion and anxiety in an instrumental avoidance task. The purpose was to test hypotheses involving the interaction of extraversion and anxiety in such a task.

Method

Subjects: College student volunteers, divided into six groups of ten students (five males, five females)on the basis of similar personality test scores.

Procedure: Subjects working in groups were given cards on which were printed two pronouns (always I and they) and three verbs selected from a group of eighty. Subjects were required to make up a "correct" sentence as designated by the experimenter. An incorrect sentence produced a blast on a motorcycle horn. There was a pattern to correct sentence formation.

Results and Discussion

The groups who scored highest in making up the sentences (by discovering the correct pattern) were those which contained individuals of low extraversion and low anxiety in combination. The group scoring lowest contained students with low anxiety but with high extraversion. In high anxiety groups those with extroverts scored higher than those with anxious introverts. College grades indicated that intelligence was not the cause of the difference in performance among the groups.

The results tend to support the hypothesis of an interaction between neuroticism and extraversion in an instrumental avoidance procedure. It cannot be determined how much of the motivation for performance is an escape from anxiety and how mush is for social rewards or ego enhancement.

Quarantelli, E.L. and Dynes, Russell R. "Looting in Civil Disorders: An Index of Social Change," American Behavioral Scientist, Vol. 11, (March - April, 1968).

The authors suggest in this article, that the spiraling outbreaks of looting are indicative of the end of a particular era of accomodation between American blacks and whites; as a rather violent beginning to a new process of "Collective bargaining" concerning rights and responsibilities of various groups in most American communities. There are several reasons for this: Among them, two stand out:

1. Looting is highly selective, focusing almost exclusively on certain kinds of goods or possessions;
2. The looters themselves received strong localized support for their actions.

Looting proceeds through various stages, according to the authors, culminating in a full redefinition of certain property rights. And this factor is probably the most radical element of the recent rebellions. Inasmuch as the notion of law is based upon certain dominant-group conceptions of property rights, the authors suggest that the current civil disorders in American cities are communicating a message about the traditionally valued resources in communities; namely, that they should be re-evaluated and above all else---changed.

Rapoport, Anatol. "Prospects for Experimental Games" Journal of Conflict Resolution. Vol. 3, No. 3, (1963) pp. 570-579.

Two person not constant sum games offer an opportunity to study mixed motive conflict in controlled labratory experiments. Extrapolation into real life situations is dangerous because of the lack of situation realism and the limited range of results obtained.

Even a 2x2 (2 players and 2 strategies) has eight varible playoffs with each matrix. With only three values of reward high, medium and low, 6,561 experiments are required to tell about comprehensive choice influence payoffs, and tens of subjects are required. Some patterns from fractions of the data relation of choices may not be main interest. The relation of choices and relative magnitudes may be of greater interest.

Some of the independant variables are: Characteristics of the subjects and the effect of learning the game bias. Theory and experimental designs are needed to make use of even the best data.

Most experimenters used the Prisoner's Dilema Game. Collective vs. individual interest. It is better to be collective minded. Competing vs. cooperative. This needs a basis for mutual trust. Frequencies of cooperation and the quantatative measure of amount of cooperation.

A good design could explain things about personal behavior only known intuitively before. While cooperation is the main strategy factors preventing cooperation such as: personality of subjects, the fact that the tester is a Psychologist of the possibility that one man is being manipulated by tester.

Two main types of designs: Convergent - with one dependant variable (cooperation); Divergent - with conditions held constant and many dependant variables studied. A natural history approach.

Many choices make a system for playing the game called a Protocol. The tester has to take into account the length of runs of joint response, the various

protocals and the learning effect. All the statistics could be deduced by mathematics. The divergent design however, is used in estimating several statistics of protocol and is good for testing a mathematics theory. The Transition Matrix of a Markov Chain holds that all statistics are deducible if your protocols coroborate with the models. When this happens you can form a theory. Prisoner's Dilema is like a game of Chicken with frequent resist vs resist and cooperate-cooperate "lock-ups" but it is still a valid method.

Watzlawick goes along with the author. He states that the Prisoner's Dilema requires abiding trust. Until the people learn to trust and communicate they usually settle on a position where both parties lose a little. As soon as they reach a best approach they immediately start to form a better "best approach". Paradigms also result he agrees (Rapoport's) lock-up. In these cases the experimenter usually must step in to change the situation.

Rapoport, Anatol Strategy and Conscience. New York: Harper & Row, 1964.

This book is a critism of strategic thinking as applied to human conflict on an international level. Strategic thinking applies game theory to situations: probalities and utilities for different alternatives are determined and an optimal choice is made by mathematically maximizing the payoff for a set of alternatives. The utilities are set in accordance with given goals. The game as a whole is defined as 1) two or more players with partially conflicting interests; 2) a range of responses for the players called strategies; 3) the play consists of a single simultaneous choice of strategies; 4) the outcome is determined by this choice; and 5) associated with each outcome is a set of payoffs.

Rapoport is critical of the application of strategic thinking to international conflict. He explains the shortcomings of the theory and in what situations the theory is in-valid. First, the players consider each other only as abstacles to the payoff, not only in the sense of a zero sum game; but also that they represent the same type of problem as a physical law. Secondly, the opposing side's strategy cannot be considered as goals are not known. This is compounded by the lack of communication and the choice of complete strategies disregarding specific actions. What has happened is that the human element has been replaced by numbers. A highly structured mathemetical analysis is the only viewpoint and the figures are not understood to represent people. This allows one to think the unthinkable and put a numerical value on human life- acceptable losses. The analysis then assumes people will act "rationally". A subtle effect of game theory is its self-fulfilling properties. There is a great tendency for strategies to interpret facts to fit their goals, which includes their self-perpetuation. A defensive move on one side often appears aa a offensive move to the other, and escalation results.

Rapoport believes that the role of "strategist" has been divorced from the

actual person and his integrity. We should "put conscience back into our thinking", and look at the conflict as people also concerned with one another. Nations must disarm ideologically; The validity of an idea must be placed in perspective so that systems and philosophies are used only as means to an end.

Schelling, Thomas C. The Strategy of Conflict, Cambridge; Mass.: Harvard University, 1966.

In this theory of conflict, Schelling takes the existence of conflict for granted, and views the behavior associated with it as a kind of contest in which the participants, using conscious, intelligent, sophisticated behavior, are trying to "win". So examining successful behavior in conflict siutations is analogous to studying rules of "correct" behavior in the contest-winning sense.

This view of conflict presupposes rational, even calculating, behavior in which the best course of action for each participant depends on what he expects the other participants to do. "Winning" here does not have a strictly competitive meaning; it is not winning relative to an adversary, but rather gaining relative to one's own value system, that is stressed. In fact, there is a common interest in reaching an outcome that is mutually advantageous. Schelling's strategy is concerned with influencing another's choice by working on his expectations of how one's own behavior is related to his. A "strategic move" influences the other's choice in a manner favorable to one's self, by affecting the other person's expectations on how one's self will behave. The object is to set up for one's self and communicate persuasively to the other a model of behavior that leaves the other a simple maximization problem whose solution for him is the optimum for one's own self, and to destroy the other's ability to do the same.

Because strategies are "labeled" in some sense, i.e., have symbolic or connotative characteristics that transcend the mathematical structure of the game, players can rise above sheer chance and "win" these games. For example, Schelling performed an experiment involving naming positive numbers. The participants' answers varied considerably, but when asked to pick the same number the others would pick when they were equally interested in choosing the same number, and everyone knew that everyone else was trying, the preponderent choice was "1". More

complicated variations on this general theme were also performed.

Schelling's theory of conflict belongs within the theory of games in which the least satisfactory progress has been made -- non zero-sum games, in which, as has been explained, there is common interest as well as conflict between adversaries. He presents no means of prevention of conflict; however, resolution of conflict can be achieved when a signalling power, a means of tacit communication, is available to the players when failure to co-ordinate choices would be serious. Verbal communication does not necessarily play an integral part in this resolution: moves more truthfully reveal a player's position, and can progress at a speed determined unilaterally, not dependent on formalities of negotiation.

In Schelling's words, this concept of conflict provides a basis of finding "basic similarities between maneuvering in a limited war and jockeying in a traffic jam, deterring Russians and deterring one's own children, or the modern balance of terror and the ancient institution of hostages." In other words, it is applicable to any conflict situation in which the moves one's opponent makes are directly dependent on one's own actions.

Schermerhorn, R.A. "Polarity in the Approach to Comparative Research in Ethnic Relations". Sociology and Social Research. Vol. 51, (Jan. 1967), p. 235.

Following the dialectical approach of Simmel, relations of dominant groups to subordinate ethnic groups are approached through the polar relations of integration conflict. Ways of conceptualizing independent, intervening and dependent variables are advanced to transform the study of intergroup relations into a special case of macrosociology where societal relations are explored in the broadest and most generic sense.

Sharp, Gene. "South African Contribution to the Study of Non-Violent Action: A Review of Leo Kuper's Passive Resistance in South Africa. Journal of Conflict Resolution, Vol. 5, p. 395.

In analyzing the South African scene, Sharp theorizes that the very approach to social change via the approach of "non-violence" has something to say about the nature of the social system itself. And the degree of tolerance for the subordinate group and the degree of shared beliefs of those other groups within the system for the subordinate group are crucial variables for the success of this technique. And the success of non-violent techniques is the first step, possibly, for the subordinate group to attain meaningful political power.

Sherif, Muzafer In Common Predicament: Social Psychology of Intergroup Conflict and Cooperation, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1966.

Sherif was concerned primarily with relationships between groups. To study how conflict between groups begins and how it can be resolved, he formed hypotheses about intergroup conflict and then tested these with groups of young boys in a camp setting. He introduced conditions sufficient for conflict to develop between groups of boys, and later he introduced the conditions necessary for the conflict to be resolved. Most of his hypotheses were born out. Study of other areas such as Civil Rights and industrial conflicts verified his findings.

Sherif expressed dissatisfaction with present knowledge of intergroup relations and attacked some existing misconceptions. He believes that intergroup behavior, such as stereotyping, is not the result of the deviant behavior of a few individuals, but is the result of the nature of the relationships between groups. He stressed that the dynamics of intergroup relations can not be extrapolated from interpersonal behavior. The relationships between groups are determined by the interests and goals of each group.

Sherif found that two groups competing for goals that only one of them could attain (and at the other's expense) was sufficient cause for intergroup conflict.

Existing methods for conflict reduction were also unsatisfactory for Sherif. He found that contact between groups, even in pleasant situations, did not necessarily reduce the conflict. The common practices of assigning blame or setting up deterrents, such as nuclear arms, are not effective and can be dangerous because groups are often incapable of understnading clearly their opponent's intentions. Sherif stated that non-violent resistance works when one group had the power to achieve its goals and the other group has no other means to counter that power. Common values are also important for the effectiveness of non-violence.

Sherif found that "a series of cooperative activities toward superordinant

goals has a cumulative effect in reducing intergroup hostility".

Superordinant goals are common goals which can be attained only with the cooperation of both groups. They can not interfere with the basic desires of the individual groups. Certain other measures help reduce conflict if superordinant goals are present---contacts in pleasant situations, correct information about the other group, exchange of members in friendship, etc., and the meeting of group leaders.

Although Sherif was most interested in intergroup conflicts, he also found out things about its effects within the groups. He found that solidarity increases and patterns of relationships are sometimes changed. The cooperative procedures within the groups were not transferred into intergroup relations. He also found that leaders are controlled by their groups. There are certain bounds outside of which the leader can not go, or he will be removed.

Sherif's observations can be applied to international relations, industrial negotiations, struggles toward social change, etc. He emphasized that the importance of the interdependence of nations can not be ignored.

Singer, J.D."Threat Perception and the Armament-Tension Dilemma" Journal of Conflict Resolution Vol. 2, No. 1, (1957) pp. 90-105.

I selected this article partly because of its relevance to contemporary life, and partly because the tenets forwarded in Deutsch's piece apply directly to the problem involved here.

In an introduction of the conflict, the author elucidates the Quaker school of thought which states that disarmament "in itself would so change the climate of world opinion that no power on earth could oppose it effectively." He then considers the opposing faction and its proponent Alfred Zimmern, who says that armaments are not a cause of world tension, but a symptom.

Before espounding of the conflict involved, Singer makes three basic assumptions: First, that the U.S. and the U.S.S.R. are ultimately the only contestants and any solution must lie in the hands of these two world powers. Secondly, the author contends that as important decisions are made collectively in each country--that is, each displays a more or less bureaucratic system of policy formation. Thirdly, the theory is presented that the national leaders of all countries are much more concerned with the immediate problem of national secruity than they are in pursuing any vague political dogmas.

Proceeding, then, Singer forwards a mathematical approach to the concept of threat and its connotation in the minds of other nations involved. This idea is expressed in the equation: (Estimated capacity of one country to wage war) x (Estimated intent to fight) = Threat perception in the eyes of the second party involved. As examples of the extremes applicable to this equation, we could insert Egypt's numerical value for estimated military capacity as close to 0 and its intent as being near 100. Conver sely, England's armament would make her a potentially dangerous world power, but her aggressive intent is, for all proactical purposes, 0. Hence, neither country depicted here is seen by others to constitute a major threat to national security.

Continuing, the author then warns against the danger of ethnocentrism within a people and leaders. He ties this in directly with the situation now prevailing that rejects any parity in armaments, always being subject to one country's trying to better its opponent's efforts to win the arms race.

Singer next proposes a definite list of rationalizations that may be applied to the arms conflict in an attempt at its resolution. These are, briefly, as follows: 1) War is inevitable; concern should be centered on winning, not preventing, an engagement. 2) In an imperfect world, where man is never totally secure, armaments will always be a necessity. 3) An easy way out--here taken to be the only way out--is for one superpower to acquiese and disarm. 4) A final approach entails complete separation of one's thoughts from the concept of war; it is simply an impossiblility in light of the destructive power of today's weapons

In addition to the above list of rationalizations, Singer's essay also presents a categorization of possible active approaches to solution of the conflict. First, is the tensions-elimination technique. All this contends is that geniality between peoples will break the ice for disarmament. The hangup is that the people of two opposing countries, though seldom hostile to each other realize that their leaders make the policies, and since political leaders are concerned primarily with the security of their nation, ethnocentricism blocks any tangible progress.

The political settlement approach need not be described; all one needs to do is view the Vietnam situation and draw a few elementary observations and logical conclusions.

The final approach in this chicken-and-egg dilemma concerns initial disarmament, which can be further classified as 1) uni-lateral and complete (one party disarms completely), 2) unilateral and partial, 3) bilateral and complete (ideal), and 4) bilateral and partial. It is clearly seen that none of these has to date been accomplished in its true sense. Total disarmament by one side is too risky

any partial disarmament is ineffectual, and total elimination of the war machine by both sides is, at present, a mere dream.

In conclusion, the author admits an inability to pin down one solution to the arms race. His personal recommendation is to subscribe a large amount of power to a median third party (the U.N.), AS A DEPENDENCE ON COLLATERAL AGREEMENT IMPLIES PUTTING STATIC FAITH IN THE DYNAMIC CONCEPT OF TRUST.

Wilson, James Q. "The Strategy of Protest: Problems of Negro Civic Aciton" Journal of Conflict Resolution, Vol. 5, p. 295.

Wilson does an analysis of political bargaining, which he defines as being any situation in which two or more parties seek conflicting ends through the exchange of compensations. The problem of many excluded groups, he believes is to create or assemble resources for bargaining. Many groups, he states, select a strategy of protest, which is distinguished form bargaining by the "exclusive use of negative inducements (threats) that rely, for their effect, on negative sanctions which require mass action or response; for excluded groups often make up in numbers what they lack in resources.

This applies doubly, Wilson thinks, to Negroes because of the many diffuse goals which they seek.

This section is composed of abstracts from articles that appear in a two volume set by J.K. Zawodny entitled MAN AND INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS. Volume I is "Conflict" and Volume II is "Integration". We have ordered the abstracts in this last section under Zawodny's volumes even though most of them are taken from other original sources. Hopefully, this eill make searching for the articles easier for future readers.

Zawodny, J.K., Man and International Relations,(Vol. I Conflict, Vol. II, Integration) San Fransisco: Chandler Publishing Company, 1966.

Vol. I. Conflict

A Note on the Frustration-Aggression Hypothesis
of Dollard and His Associates

George Morlan

In this article Morlan gives an excellent criticism of Dollard's theory that inhibited aggression is displaced to some other object and that any act of aggression acts as a catharsis which reduces the likelihood of further aggression for some time after the aggressive episode. This theory is subject to breakdown, however. One example is its failure to answer such questions as treatment of minority groups -- "do we abuse minorities because we hate them or do we hate minorities because we abuse them?"

Morlan makes four main observations concerning Dollard's hypothesis:

1) Although frustration might frequently result in aggression, it doesn't necessarily cause aggression.
2) There can be many antecedent causes of acts of aggression such as emotional predisposition, sociological predisposition and others.
3) Instead of acting as a catharsis to further aggressive behavior, aggression can actually be cumulative.
4) Aggression can be learned.

From the body of data he considers, Morlan makes five conclusions relating to methods of reducing aggression:

1) To achieve healthful release, aggression must be expressed in a therapeutic situation.
2) Those who express their enmity must not be rewarded.
3) The effect of frustration depends upon both the attitude of the individual and that of society toward the expression of aggression.
4) If there is doubt, it is probably better to use the interaction hypothesis. (e.g. Laws against lynching and the poll tax probably reduced rather than increased aggression.)
5) For the good of society, repression of aggressive tendencies is necessary in the case of an aggressor injuring another person rather than allowing him his "catharsis".

A Comparative Approach to the Problem of Destructiveness

Abraham H. Maslow

The introduction to this article can be summed up by the following syllogism which many researchers into the area of aggressiveness frequently seem to follow:

1) Animals are destructive and aggressive.
2) Man is an animal.

Therefore: Man has an instinct for aggressiveness and destructiveness.

Maslow is in fundamental disagreement with this. The thesis of his article is that aggressive or destructive behavior is secondary or derived behavior rather than primary motivation. Maslow tells us that behavior is determined by three main considerations: character structure or motivation, culture pressure, and the immediate situation, field.

He lists six ways in which destructiveness might occur:

1) In sweeping something out of one's way without thought in pursuit of another goal.
2) Destructiveness could be a concomitant of reactions to a basic threat.
3) Organic damage or perception of organic damage might produce a situation with reactions similar to those in 2) because of a reduced subjective competence.
4) An insecure world view could cause a person to 'lash out', holding that the best defense is strong attack.
5) A sadistic or masochistic complex.
6) The drive for power.

The article is concluded with an admonition to be alert to the fact that empirically identical behavior can result from varying causes.

Conflict, Frustration, and the Theory of Threat

A.H. Maslow

What Mr. Maslow says here is almost a footnote to his previous article. First he lists four types of conflict situations:

1) Sheer choice, e.g. a rat at a choice point in a maze. This is hardly even conflict.
2) A situation with two directions to the same important goals can be conflict producting in some situations. No conflict: A woman choosing which dress to wear to the movies. Conflict producting: A woman deciding which of two marriage proposals she will accept when she loves both men.
3) Threatening conflicts --choice point that requires selection of only one of several very important goal alternatives. e.g. Zero Sum Game.
4) Catastrophic conflict -- Pure threat, no choice alternatives. e.g. a person going to the electric chair.

According to Maslow the most nuclear aspect of threat is direct deprivation or thwarting of or danger to a person's basic needs. He lists some examples:

humiliation, rejection, isolation, loss of prestige, loss of bodily strength, loss of mental or bodily acuity. Also it must be remembered that regardless of an objective observer's viewpoint, the important fact to consider is whether the individual in question feels threatened.

Conflicting Value Orientations and Intra-Personality Conflicts

Solis L. Kates

This is a short but worthwhile article dealing with the value orientations a person internalizes and their conflicting demands.

Personality Characteristics and the Resolution of Role Conflicts

E.G. Mishler

This article is an abstract of an experiment investigating whether there was any relationship betweeen personality characteristics and the direction in which conflicts were resolved; specifically, whether they would be resolved in the direction of obligation to a friend or to a social role. (Universalist-Particularist) Mishler's evidence seems to indicate that there is, one of the relationships being that Particularists exhibited higher degrees of authoritarianism than Universalists. There were four emergent personality types, with both the Particularists and Universalists falling into internally and externally oriented classifications. Mishler observes in conclusion that although the different personality characteristics might cause the same observable behavior, the range of possible types is limited.

Experimental Studies of Conflict

Neal E. Miller

This article deals with the conflict situation of classical psychology, that is, the various combinations of approach and avoidance motivations. He notes that conflict only appears when avoidance is a factor because it induces anxiety. Investigators of conflicts are suggested to ask two questions in their analysis of such situations: 1) What is feared? and 2) What conflicting tendencies prevent the subject from escaping the fear provoking stimuli? Miller also discusses the fact that the tendency for similar stimuli to elicit the same response (generalization) could cause the initial conflict to spread to other areas of the individual's personality. Finally, to correct deterministic fallacies, he points out that instead of one stimulus winning out completely, a person might exhibit a compromise response.

The Analysis of Social Conflict--Toward
An Overview and Synthesis

R.W. Mack & R.C. Snyder

This article is probably one of the most perceptive of the needs for conflict researchers presently extent in the literature. Although the writers come up with no new intellectually titilating theories of their own, they are extremely aware of the lack of theories, inter-disciplinary conceptualization, and the systematic ordering of propositions. Everyone concerned with conflict resolution should be familiar with Mack and Snyder's work. Following i is an abbreviated outline of the main points discussed in the article:

I. Definition of conflict
II. Properties of conflictive behaviors
    a) Requires at least two parties
    b) Ariese from 'position' and 'resource' scarcity
    c) Destroys, injures, thwarts, or otherwise controls behavior of another party
    d) Usually arises from zero-sum game situations
    e) Requires interacitons among parties in which actions and counteractions are mutually opposed
    f) Always involves attempts to acquire or exercise power
    g) Constitutes a fundamental social interaction and has important consequences
    h) Represents a tendency toward a temporary disjunction of the interaction clow
    i) Represents a change than a breakdown of norms

III. Types of conflict
    a) Realistic vs. non-realistic
    b) Communal vs. non-communal
    c) Institutionalized vs. non-institutionalized
    d) Rights vs. interests
    e) What is desired vs. what is socially sanctioned

IV. Functions of conflict
    a) Sets group boundaries by strengthening group cohesiveness
    b) Reduces tension and permits maintainance of soical interaction under stress
    c) Clarifies objectives
    d) Results in establishment of group norms
    e) Without conflict, accommodative relations would result in subordination rather than agreement

V. The parties to conflict: implications of nature, number, and internal characteristics
    Hypotheses and propositions
    a) Induced conflict is likely to be more conflictful than realistic conflict because of the coincidence of group and personal values.
    b) Induced conflicts arise more from imbalance or ambiguity or power relationships, whereas realistic conflicts arise more from incompatibility of objectives.
    c) The early stages of conflict are carried on with the object of establishing the intergroup nature of the conflict.

d) The larger the number of parties, the less intense will be the non-realistic components of the conflict relationship.
e) There is a persistant tendency to reduce multiple-party conflict to two-party conflict via coalitions and blocs.
f) Intra-group harmony and solidarity reduce inter-group friction.
g) Conflict with outgroups increases internal cohesion.
h) Internal political structures which effectively channel and accommodate discontent are less likely to exhibit

VI. Conflict as an interaction system
a) Modes of resolution
Two important books: Dahl and Lindblom - Politics, Economics, and Welfare
Luce and Raiffa - Conflict, Collusion, and Conciliation
b) Power relations
c) Nature and degree of institutionalization
d) Mediated vs. unmediated systems
e) Conflict limitations
1) Functional interdependence
2) Conflict cost
3) Availability of certain modes of resolution
4) Ignorance and misunderstanding
5) Avoidance tabus

VII. Conclusion
With the data now available, investigations should try to work out an explicit framework of knowledge rather than using common-sense generalizations and anecdotalistic lack of rigor. According to the authors, some of the things that should be done are "search for a limited number of major variables, the formulation of bold hypotheses, cross-field generalizations, and typification (of data)."

Vol. II. Integration

1. Committee on International Relations, G.A.P.
"Some Considerations Related to the Conduct of International Conflict without V8olence." p. 696.

This paper is based upon the assumption that human conflict is, in one form or another, inevitable. Hence, the authors feel that undue focus upon rapid resolution of conflict may be less realistic than emphasis upon the conduct of conflict as an on-going process, especially in reference to international affairs. They further propose that two sets of conditions between rival parites often determine the respective approach of each to the conflict situation: L. Trust and 2. The degree of communication.

2. French, Thomas M. "Social Conflict and Psychic Conflict." p. 240.

French delves into the unique relationship between the psychoanalytic mechanism of projection and the deep-rooted feard of any persons who propose even the mildest need for change in our social order. He postulates that the American fear of subversion is based upon a similar mechanism. Like Coser, French emphasizes the fact that, if social conflicts are to be solved, it is plain that our political leaders must have a comprehensive grasp of the fundamental and divergent needs upon which it is possibly based, as well as a grasp of the conflict situation itself.

3. Galtung, Johan. "On the Meanigg of Non-Violence". p. 405.

Disregarding "inner states of the mind," Galtung consideres non-violence as being only observable behavior. Hoeever, he discounts the traditional approaches to defining the term. Unique is his concept of non-lethal violence as a strategic alternative to lethal violence in the same way that, traditionally, "non-violence" is usually regarded; or, to put it differently, he defines violence in terms of the redicalness of departure from existing social norms regardless of the particular nature of the tactic. Galtung also offers ideas on the implications to which this kind of hypothesizing might have on research in the future.

4. Horowitz, Irving Lewis. "Consensus, Conflict and Cooperation: A Sociological Inventory." p. 228.

Horowitz examines the various theories of social organization and their relative theoretical competence in explaining social structure. He points out the various deficiencies intrinsic to consensus and cooperation theory and the danger of considering conflict as an entity outside cohesive social systems instead of as being an intricate part of them. Leaning heavily on Coser's work on the German sociologist, Georg Simmel, Horowitz quotes Coser stating that,

"'Types of conflict and types of social structure are not independent variables. Internal social conflicts which concern goals, values or interests that do not contradict the basic assumptions upon which the relationship is founded tend to be positively functional for the social structure. Such conflicts tend to make possible readjustment of norms and power relations within groups in accordance with the felt needs of its individual members or subgroups.'"

5. Katz, Daniel. "Consistent Reactive Participation of Group Members and REduction of Intergroup Conflict." p. 770

Discusses the motivational forces and cognitive processes which pre-dispose toward aggressive outcomes of group conflict. His fundamental aasumption in this article is that there no longer exists a "rational basis" for war or fiolent struggle between groups or nations because of conflicts of interest or of ideology. He distinguishes four types of conflict outcomes, but only considers one to be real <u>solution</u> of conflict:

1. The stalemate or aggressive conflict in which there is no victory for either side.
2. Conquest and Dominance
3. Compromise, and
4. Conflict Solution, or the "integration of the needs of both sides to the dispute so that they find a common path or a common goal without sacrificing their basic ethical principles."

6. Katz, "Psychological Barriers to Communication," p. 313.

Through the physical barriers to communication are practically non-existent, Katz believes that the psychological obstacles still remain. He lists these psychological barriers as being: 1. The failure to refer language to experience and reality, 2. The inability to transcend personal experience in intergroup communication, 3. Stereotypes; The assimilation to familiar frames of reference, and 4. The confusion of percept and concept: Reification and personification.

Interesting is his postulation that though much additional research needs to be done on the psychological barriers to communication, just maybe, the whole problem of "communication" is inseparable from the larger context of the over-all social problems of our time.

7. Katz, Daniel, & Janis, Irving "The Reduction of Intergroup Hostility: Research Problems and Hypothesis." p. 644.

Offers a general survey of the various approaches to the solving of intergroup tensions. The authors attempt to show the applicability of the research methods of behavioral science to problems of group conflict and interpersonal hostility.

The authors also offer an interesting analysis of the interplay of violence, personal norms, and institutional sanctions in determining often times, which alternatives of conflict siutationa are employed and the degrees to which they are used by the participating parties.

8. Loomis, James L. "Communication, The Development of Trust, and Cooperative Behavior. p. 298.

Draws some interesting insights from game theory in the role of communication as related to the development of trust and cooperative behavior. Findings tend to support the popular notion that exchanges in information between two opposed parties increase feelings of trust and, hence, the possibility of cooperative behavior between them.

9. Steiner, Ivan D. "Interpersonal Behavior as Influenced by Accuracy of Social Perception". p. 198.

This paper presents a critical examination of two propositions which link accurate social perception with competence in interpersonal behavior and group efficiency in collective action. Though the research provides some basis for confidence in each of these two assumptions, namely: a. The more knowledge an individual has concerning the intentions, preferences, and beliefs of other persons, the more effectively he can participate in group activity with those other persons, and, b. Groups composed of individuals with accurate social perceptions will be more efficient than groups composed of members with less accuarate social perceptions, the author feels that, nevertheless, the contradictory findings suggest that neither of the two propositions are completely true or completely false.

On the otherhand, the author feels that quite possibly, the most efficient collective action occurs when neither of these assumptions are met as, for instance, in the case of the military. Furthermore, even when these assumptions are met, he states, "Accurate social perceptions may even fail to permit or encourage efficient collective action.

10. Rokeach, Milton. "Personality, Ideology, and Cognitive Functioning." p. 53.

Surveys the strengths and weaknesses of research on the structural components of belief systems and proposes new directions for future pay-off. He, furthermore, offers five assumptions upon which his research is based and which are relevant to the study of conflict and its resolution. They are:

1. For all individuals, even those whose systems are relatively closed, the categorization of people and groups is continuous rather than dichotomous. Disbeliefs are seen to be arranged by virtually everyone in terms of a continuum of similarity.
2. The basic criterion of categorization of persons is a belief criterion of psychological perspectives of exact group cleavages which shift according to the specific issue under consideration.
3. Every affective state also has its representation as a cognitive state in the form of some belief or some structural relation among beliefs within a system.
4. While a person's belief-disbelief system is a relatively enduring structure the extent to which it influences behavior, and the extent to which it is open or closed at any particular moment, is jointly influenced by situational conditions interacting with personality. A person's belief-disbelief system is never totally activated or engaged at any one time.
5. The belief-system seems to be constructed to serve both reality and ego-needs at onece. In other words, it seeks to understand the world insofar as possible and to defend against it insofar as necessary.

11. Wallace, Anthony F.C. "Revitalization Movements". p. 261.

Wallace hypothesizes that the various modes of major cultural-system innovation e.g. "nativistic movement", "reform movement", etc. are all characterized by a uniform process which he calls "Revitalization".

A Revitalization movement Wallace defines as a deliberate, organized, conscious effort by members of a society to construct a more satisfying culture. Unique is his categories of fundamental-radical social change in societies which are based upon the method of event analysis--a historical approach--and the cydle in which these categories operate.

12. Horchel, Philip. "Catharsis and the Relief of Hostility". p. 80.

Relatively few investigations have been undertaken to validate the clinical impression of the psychotherapeutic efficience of catharsis or test any hypothesis as to its rationable. The following experiment was hence devised to compare the effects of expressing hostility directly to the investigator, and expressing hostility to, or about others. It was hypothesized, therefore, that hostility would be reduced if the therapeutic situation provided socially acceptable conditions for the expression of hostility or attack at the instigator. The findings generally supported the hypothesis.